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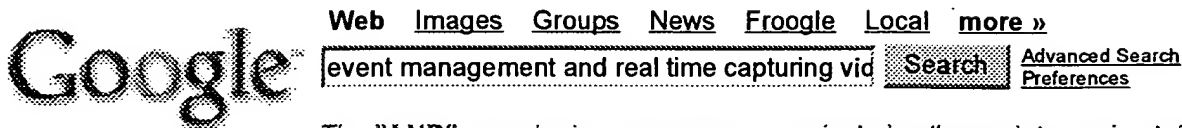
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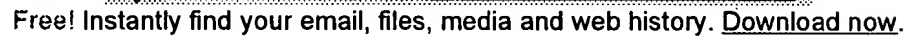
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Capturing Real-Time Requirements

By Bruce Powel Douglass

Embedded Systems Programming

(11/01/01, 09:37:50 AM EST)



Requirements are too often co-mingled with design element way to focus on capturing only the essentials, with UML.

Many developers regard requirements capture with a disdain norm for Windows crashes and Richard Simmons exercise videos. They s of time that diverts them from what they ought to be doing: crank However, in a requirements-driven process, the developers always what they're doing actually relates to the goals and purposes of the

To properly understand what features ought to be designed and im well as how they ought to work, it is necessary to have a deep und the following concepts: the purposes of the system; the workflow (applicable) with respect to the system; the set of features the syst the devices with which it must interact and how those interactions what should happen when something expected or "bad" occurs; an the features must be visible to the user and the external devices. 1 part of the requirements or specification of the system. If you unde requirements thoroughly, your development work will be more pro have less reworking to do, and your customers will be happy.

In a requirements-centric development, all work relates in some w requirements specification of the system. Early in analysis, we try how the system fits into its environment (including the user). Soor detailing exactly which features we want the system to provide to work in that environment and exactly how we want those features elements in the system's environment. Later, we design the intern. system to meet those specifications, and finally we construct test v system to ensure the appropriate level of completeness, fidelity, ar

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I find that real-time and embedded developers often have difficulty requirements from design. The chosen design is usually just one of of meeting the requirements. Many bright and experienced develop the design aspect so ingrained in them that they find this distinctio have developed an approach for understanding, capturing, and ma requirements based on my work with complex projects at NASA an which is the focus of this article. This approach is part of the ROPE:

Types of requirements

Just as there are two kinds of people (those who divide people into those who don't), there are two kinds of requirements: functional : service. Functional requirements encompass what the system shou it should behave in a variety of circumstances. For example:

- The system shall adjust the angle of the telescope under use
- The system shall deliver anesthetic agents in gaseous form a concentration.
- Locking clamps shall engage when the elevator cable breaks.
- The device shall alarm if the heart rate falls below 30 beats p

Quality of service (QoS) requirements specify how well a functiona shall be accomplished. In real-time and embedded systems, QoS r may specify properties of the system (for example, range, speed, t capacity, reliability, maintainability, evolvability, time to market, s predictability, schedulability), or properties of the process. As a rul it's something that can be quantified or optimized, then it is a QoS For example (QoS requirements italicized):

- The angle of the telescope shall be set in units of 0.1 degree: maximum error of 0.01 degrees.
- The anesthetic agent shall be controllable from 0.00% to 5.0 in units of 0.01% with an accuracy of 0.005%.
- Locking clamps shall engage in the event of an elevator supp

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breakage within less than 0.5 seconds.

- The device shall alarm within 10 seconds if the heart rate falls below 60 beats per minute.

The defining characteristic of real-time systems is the level to which requirements figure into the correctness of the system. In non-real-time systems, late is acceptable. In real-time systems, late is unacceptable. Put a real-time system is not necessarily fast, but it is predictably timely. Real-time systems may be hard real-time, which means that responses for aperiodic systems or actions taken when a periodic task begins (systems) must complete by a specified deadline.

Systems may also be soft real-time. For example:

- Event responses shall be handled on average within a certain timeframe.
- A certain number of event responses shall be handled within a certain timeframe.
- A specified failure rate is permitted.

Because the mathematics required to analyze soft real-time systems is more difficult than for the simpler, hard real-time case, it is very common to model soft real-time systems as hard real-time to simplify the analysis.[2] This approach is an overdesign of the system, with, typically, an increase in recurring cost due to the overdesigned hardware platform.

In my approach, functional requirements are modeled as use cases, specifications, actions, and message sequences. QoS requirements are modeled as constraints of some kind, applied against one or more functional requirements.

Use cases

A use case is a named coherent collection of related requirements around system capability. A use case is large-scale, typically corresponding to three to 10 pages of textual requirements. Use cases define little in terms of specific requirements per se, but they serve as a way to organize and name them. A good use case:

- Focuses on the user's or actor's perspective of the system (not the implementation of its interfaces or its internals)
- Captures a closely related set of requirements
- Returns a result visible to one or more actors
- Does not reveal or imply system internal structure or implementation
- Is independent from other use cases and may be concurrent
- Consists of a set of messages exchanged between the system and one or more actors (more than just one!)

Relationships among use cases can be used, but there's a caveat: newcomers to use case modeling use these relationships to do a full decomposition of the system's internal structure; this is not what they are for. The purpose of use case relationships is to depict relations among the requirements. The most common relations are specializations (stereo-specific) of the dependency relation (shown using a dashed line with



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arrowhead). The <<includes>> relation means that a larger use case includes a smaller one. For example, a use case for a spacecraft might be "Take pictures of a planet" and another might be "Send information to Earth-side Station". Executing each of these use cases involves rolling the spacecraft to a specific orientation-either to point the camera at the planet or to aim the antenna at Earth. Thus, they could both <<includes>> a smaller use case, such as "Adjust Attitude."

<<extends>> is similar to <<includes>> except that the smaller use case is optional and only used in certain situations. For example, suppose a set of commands sent to a spacecraft could potentially lead to a loss of telemetry. You might want user validation and authorization guaranteed before sending such commands. In this case, the larger "Process Ground Commands" use case might be extended by a "Validate User."

Additionally, one use case may be more general or specific than another. For example, there may be multiple ways to do a Validate User use case: by Username and Authorization Code, Validate by Fingerprint Scan, or Validate by Voice Recognition. Each of these is a specialized form of the general Validate User use case.

We will use these relations in a very specific way when we capture requirements for large complex systems.

Detailed requirements

Since a use case is a container of detailed requirements, just providing the use case isn't enough. We need to provide the details. In the requirements process we call this "detailing the use case."

There are two primary means to detail a use case-by example or by specification. By far, the most common is by example. This is done by constructing scenarios of message exchange between the system and the actor associated with that use case. This approach has advantages and disadvantages. The advantages include the simplicity of the representation and the fact that non-technical stakeholders can understand how the system behaves with respect to the use case. The disadvantages include the fact that a use case is represented by an infinite set of scenarios; the number that is actually used must be trimmed down somehow. Also, there is typically no way to specify all possible behaviors when you give an example. That is, there is no way to specify prohibited behaviors.

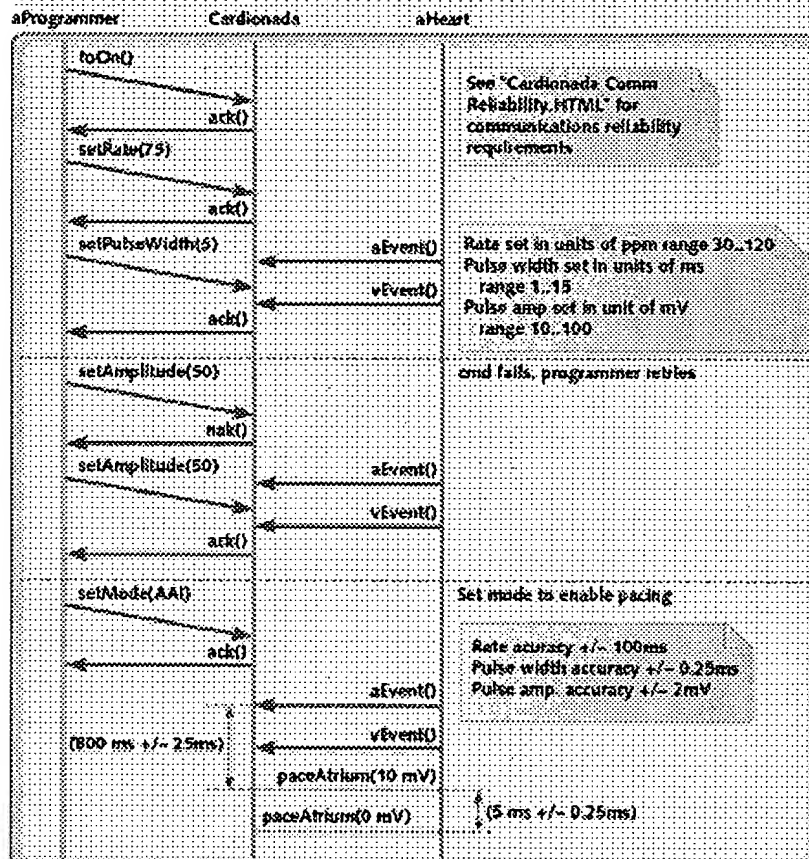
Detailing a use case by specification gets around these disadvantages by providing a single location for the details that applies to each of the infinite scenarios. It can also state prohibitions as requirements. On the downside, precise formal languages (such as statecharts) are used to specify requirements, which requires a high digit IQ is required, which may disallow certain managers and managers with less understanding the requirements. My recommendation is to use a more general approach, which we will see later.

Scenarios and message sequence charts

A scenario is a specific path through a use case. The most common way to represent a scenario is a message sequence chart, as shown in Figure 1. The

are called instance lines, and at the system specification level, they actors and either the use case or the system fulfilling the role of th prefer to use the use case because it helps me identify the context particular scenario. Note that at this level, we do not include objec system. Looking ahead, later we will add internal objects to our sc how our designs actually meet our requirements, but they should r system-level use case scenarios. The goal at this point is to captur not design.

Figure 1: Scenario example



A typical system might have anywhere from half a dozen to a dozen and each use case might have half a dozen to several dozen scenarios. Since there is an infinite set from which the scenarios can be drawn, how do we decide which ones to explicitly represent? The ROPES process guide adds scenarios to a use case only when they demonstrate or depict more new requirements. You're done when you can't come up with that add a new requirement.

Functional requirements are shown on sequence diagrams as ordered sequences. That is, you're showing that a particular sequence of messages may be allowed. If the order within a message set is unimportant, you can add a constraint {unordered} to the set of messages. QoS requirements are constraints that attach to the instance lines, individual messages, or message sets. The most common constraints are timeliness constraints applied to an ordered pair of messages. In Figure 1, a timeliness constraint is shown at the bottom using a common notation: a vertical line between two horizontal bars marking points in time on the scenario. Other QoS

shown in note boxes on the right of the diagram.

Specifications for requirements capture

The other primary approach to detailing requirements is to do it by Either informal or formal languages can be used, or a combination informal languages, we usually mean written specifications. Some elaborate fields used to specify the use case. For example, Schneic suggest:[3]

- Use case name
- Actors
- Priority (project)
- Status (project)
- Preconditions
- Postconditions
- Extension points
- Included use cases
- Flow of events
- List of related diagrams (sequence, statechart, activity, and :

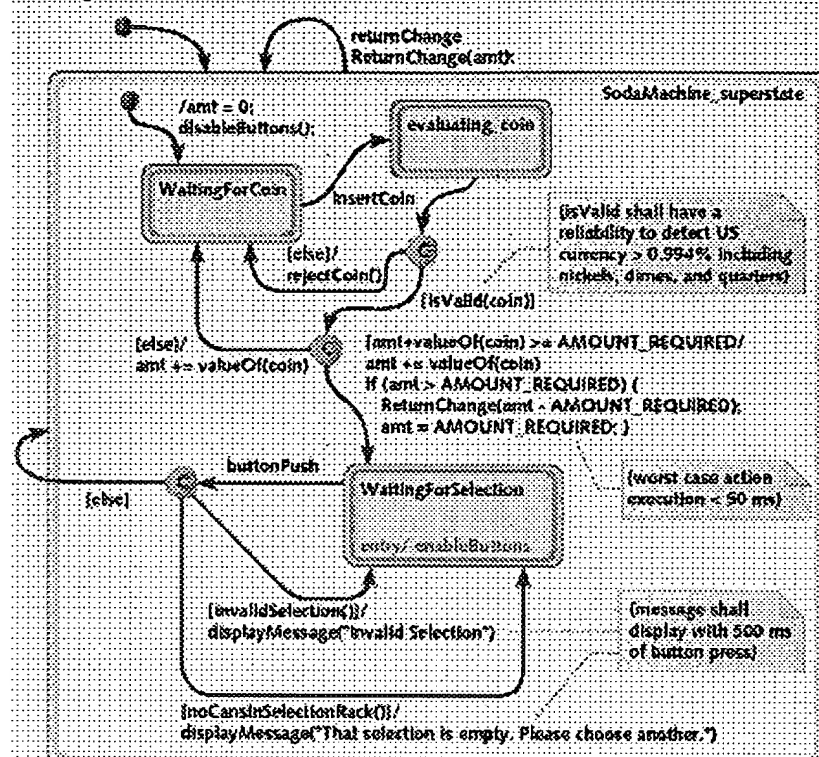
Of these, I feel only the preconditions and postconditions are requi things are shown using other views (such as the diagrams themsel

For formal languages, the UML provides the statechart and its cous chart. Statecharts are most applicable when the use case has state distinguishable conditions of existence as defined by a set of event accepted, behaviors performed, and reachability of subsequent sta use case is in State A, it accepts a certain set of messages and eve certain set of behaviors, and can reach a finite set of other states. distinguishable from other such states in that one or more of these different. When an autopilot is executing "Controlling Flight Path," certain things it can and cannot do when taking off vs. when in cru states.

Activity charts are just a specialized form of a statechart. Activity c when the primary means to transition from one state to the next d completion of the actions executed within a state rather than upon explicit message or event from somewhere else.

Consider a soda pop machine with two actors (the Customer and tl Rep). Let's focus on a Deliver Soda Can use case. It is difficult to ir individually all the possible ways in which users might insert coins buttons to get a can of soda from the machine, even without the a the price. However, it is relatively straightforward to do so using a shown in Figure 2.

Figure 2: Soda machine use case statechart



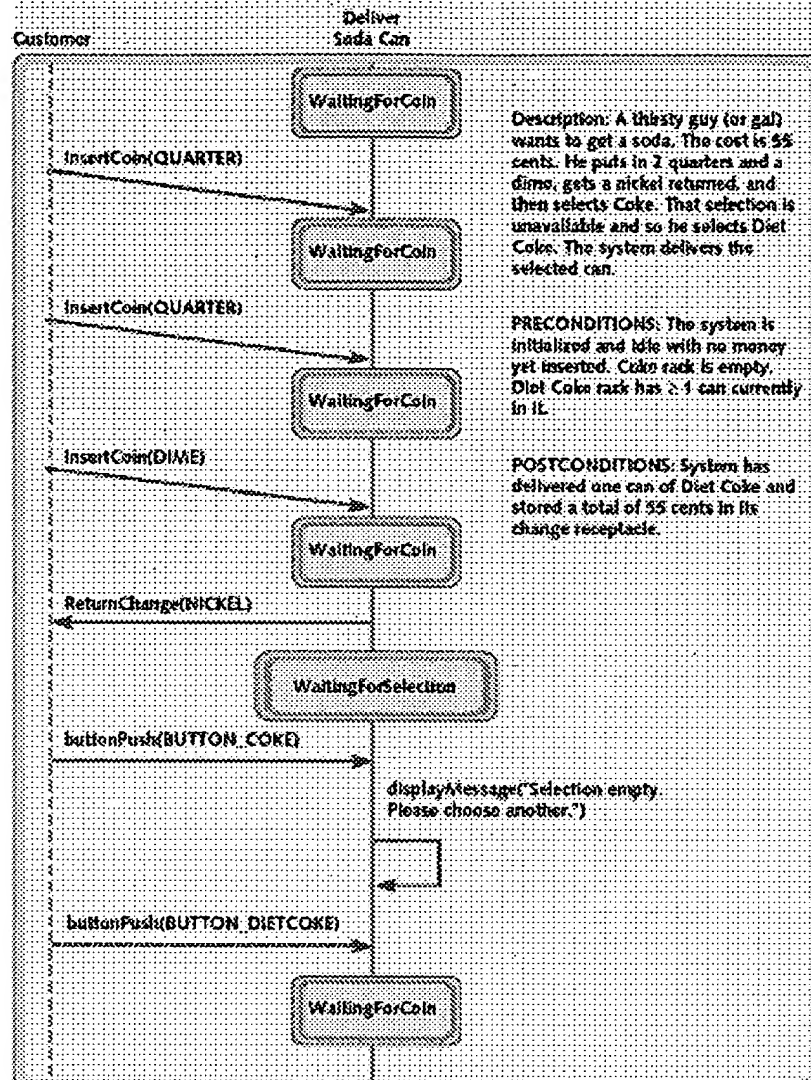
The statechart in the figure has only four states to manage the transaction of inserting coins and selecting the desired flavor of soda. [4] All directly relevant to the specification of the use case are shown on 1 (although not their implementation). Notice also that no internal objects are identified, but some data are: specifically, `amt` tracks how much the user has entered, and `AMOUNT_REQUIRED` is the cost of a single can of soda. Various operations used within the actions, but it isn't at all implied there are or how they relate to each other.

In fact, a set of objects will realize this use case (that's UML-speak "implement"). All that we can be sure of is that, in any correct design specified will collectively be able to provide the services as specified in the statechart in Figure 2.

In the final analysis, either statecharts or activity diagrams can be used for the specification of requirements.

Relating specifications and scenarios

When you use a formal language, such as statecharts, to specify a use case, you are capturing the entire infinite set of scenarios all in one place. A scenario is nothing more than a particular path through the statechart. For example, Figure 3 shows one particular scenario represented by this statechart. In this scenario, the cost of the soda is 55 cents. The customer puts in two quarters and receives a nickel in change. Then he selects Coke, but there is no Coke in the machine; the machine displays a message to that effect. The customer then selects another flavor, Coke, and the system delivers it. Notice that some of the relevant states and transitions in the state machine are shown on the use case instance line—this aids in relating the scenario back to the statechart specification.

Figure 3: Thirsty guy scenario

Of course, there are other paths through the statechart; these are scenarios. In general, you will want to construct the set of scenario statechart. You do this by making a different scenario for every dif through the statechart, although you'll only want to do the looping and representative examples of the concurrent regions (and-states

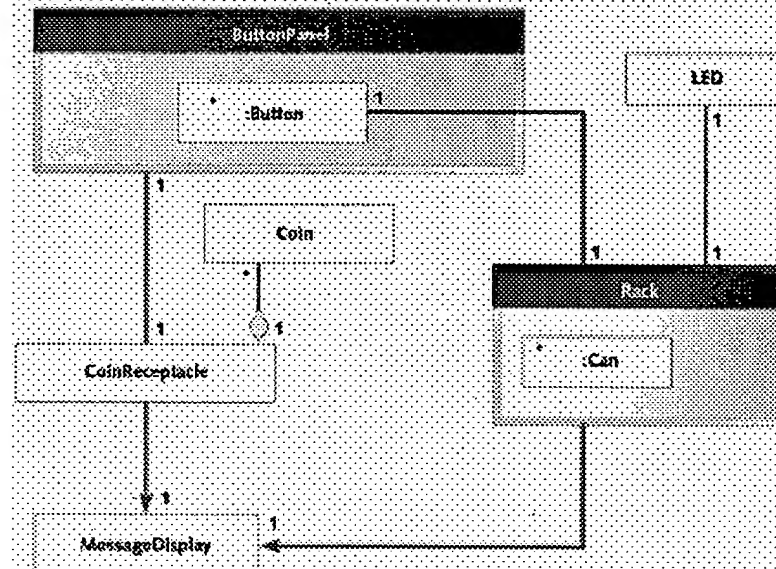
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Figure 4: Soda machine collaboration class diagram

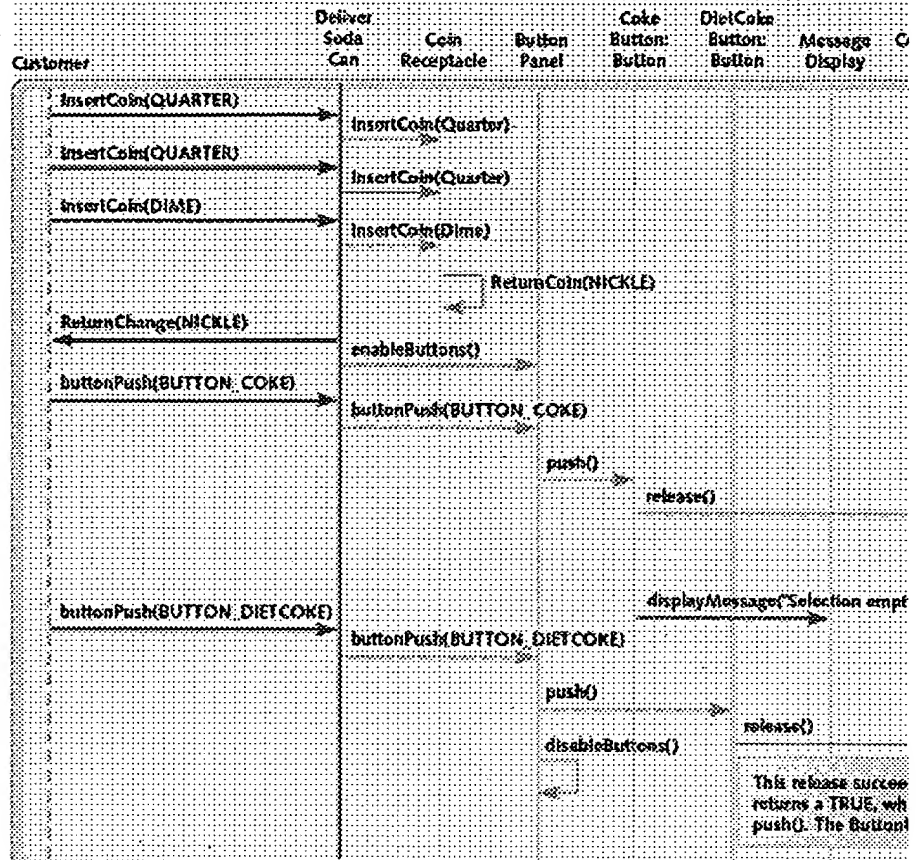


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Figure 5 is the same scenario shown in Figure 3, but we've added the collaborative elements from the class diagram.^[5] We can walk through the scenario and see how the objects inside the system collaborate to realize the requirements.

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This approach of validation via execution can be applied at any level of abstraction. As we add more detail to a highly complex system with components, and composite classes, we can be sure that we're doing what we want when, at the specified level of abstraction, it executes all of the scenarios for the use case.

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Capturing Real-Time Requirements

By Bruce Powel Douglass

Embedded Systems Programming

(11/01/01, 09:37:50 AM EST)



Requirements are too often co-mingled with design element way to focus on capturing only the essentials, with UML.

Many developers regard requirements capture with a disdain norm for Windows crashes and Richard Simmons exercise videos. They s of time that diverts them from what they ought to be doing: crank However, in a requirements-driven process, the developers always what they're doing actually relates to the goals and purposes of the

To properly understand what features ought to be designed and im well as how they ought to work, it is necessary to have a deep und the following concepts: the purposes of the system; the workflow (applicable) with respect to the system; the set of features the syst the devices with which it must interact and how those interactions what should happen when something expected or "bad" occurs; an the features must be visible to the user and the external devices. 1 part of the requirements or specification of the system. If you unde requirements thoroughly, your development work will be more pro have less reworking to do, and your customers will be happy.

In a requirements-centric development, all work relates in some w requirements specification of the system. Early in analysis, we try how the system fits into its environment (including the user). Soor detailing exactly which features we want the system to provide to work in that environment and exactly how we want those features elements in the system's environment. Later, we design the intern system to meet those specifications, and finally we construct test v system to ensure the appropriate level of completeness, fidelity, an

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I find that real-time and embedded developers often have difficulty requirements from design. The chosen design is usually just one of meeting the requirements. Many bright and experienced developers find the design aspect so ingrained in them that they find this distinction have developed an approach for understanding, capturing, and managing requirements based on my work with complex projects at NASA and which is the focus of this article. This approach is part of the ROPE:

Types of requirements

Just as there are two kinds of people (those who divide people into those who don't), there are two kinds of requirements: functional and service. Functional requirements encompass what the system should do; it should behave in a variety of circumstances. For example:

- The system shall adjust the angle of the telescope under use
- The system shall deliver anesthetic agents in gaseous form at a concentration.
- Locking clamps shall engage when the elevator cable breaks.
- The device shall alarm if the heart rate falls below 30 beats per minute.

Quality of service (QoS) requirements specify how well a functional requirement shall be accomplished. In real-time and embedded systems, QoS requirements may specify properties of the system (for example, range, speed, time to market, capacity, reliability, maintainability, evolvability, time to market, size, predictability, schedulability), or properties of the process. As a rule, if it's something that can be quantified or optimized, then it is a QoS requirement. For example (QoS requirements italicized):

- The angle of the telescope shall be set in units of 0.1 degrees; *maximum error of 0.01 degrees.*
- The anesthetic agent shall be controllable from 0.00% to 5.0% in units of 0.01% with an accuracy of 0.005%.
- Locking clamps shall engage in the event of an elevator support failure.

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breakage within less than 0.5 seconds.

- The device shall alarm within 10 seconds if the heart rate falls below 60 beats per minute.

The defining characteristic of real-time systems is the level to which requirements figure into the correctness of the system. In non-real-time systems, late is acceptable. In real-time systems, late is unacceptable. Put a real-time system is not necessarily fast, but it is predictably timely. Real-time systems may be hard real-time, which means that responses for aperiodic systems or actions taken when a periodic task begins (systems) must complete by a specified deadline.

Systems may also be soft real-time. For example:

- Event responses shall be handled on average within a certain timeframe.
- A certain number of event responses shall be handled within a certain timeframe.
- A specified failure rate is permitted.

Because the mathematics required to analyze soft real-time systems is more difficult than for the simpler, hard real-time case, it is very common to model soft real-time systems as hard real-time to simplify the analysis.[2] This approach is an overdesign of the system, with, typically, an increase in recurring cost due to the overdesigned hardware platform.

In my approach, functional requirements are modeled as use cases, specifications, actions, and message sequences. QoS requirements are modeled as constraints of some kind, applied against one or more functional requirements.

Use cases

A use case is a named coherent collection of related requirements around system capability. A use case is large-scale, typically corresponding to three to 10 pages of textual requirements. Use cases define little or no specific requirements per se, but they serve as a way to organize them. A good use case:

- Focuses on the user's or actor's perspective of the system (not the implementation of its interfaces or its internals)
- Captures a closely related set of requirements
- Returns a result visible to one or more actors
- Does not reveal or imply system internal structure or implementation
- Is independent from other use cases and may be concurrent
- Consists of a set of messages exchanged between the system and one or more actors (more than just one!)

Relationships among use cases can be used, but there's a caveat: newcomers to use case modeling use these relationships to do a functional decomposition of the system's internal structure; this is not what they are for. The purpose of use case relationships is to depict relations among the requirements. The most common relations are specializations (stereospecific) of the dependency relation (shown using a dashed line with



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arrowhead). The <<includes>> relation means that a larger use case includes a smaller one. For example, a use case for a spacecraft might be "Take pictures of a planet" and another might be "Send information to Earth-side Station". Executing each of these use cases involves rolling the spacecraft to a specific orientation—either to point the camera at the planet or to aim the antenna at Earth. Thus, they could both <<includes>> a smaller use case, such as "Adjust Attitude."

<<extends>> is similar to <<includes>> except that the smaller use case is optional and only used in certain situations. For example, suppose a set of commands sent to a spacecraft could potentially lead to a loss of telemetry. You might want user validation and authorization guaranteed before sending such commands. In this case, the larger "Process Ground Commands" use case might be extended by a "Validate User."

Additionally, one use case may be more general or specific than another. For example, there may be multiple ways to do a Validate User use case: by Username and Authorization Code, Validate by Fingerprint Scan, or Validate by Voice Recognition. Each of these is a specialized form of the general Validate User use case.

We will use these relations in a very specific way when we capture requirements for large complex systems.

Detailed requirements

Since a use case is a container of detailed requirements, just providing the use case isn't enough. We need to provide the details. In the process we call this "detailing the use case."

There are two primary means to detail a use case—by example or by specification. By far, the most common is by example. This is done by constructing scenarios of message exchange between the system and the actor associated with that use case. This approach has advantages and disadvantages. The advantages include the simplicity of the representation and the fact that non-technical stakeholders can understand how the system behaves with respect to the use case. The disadvantages include the fact that a use case is represented by an infinite set of scenarios; the number that is actually used must be trimmed down somehow. Also, there is typically no way to specify all behaviors when you give an example. That is, there is no way to specify prohibited behaviors.

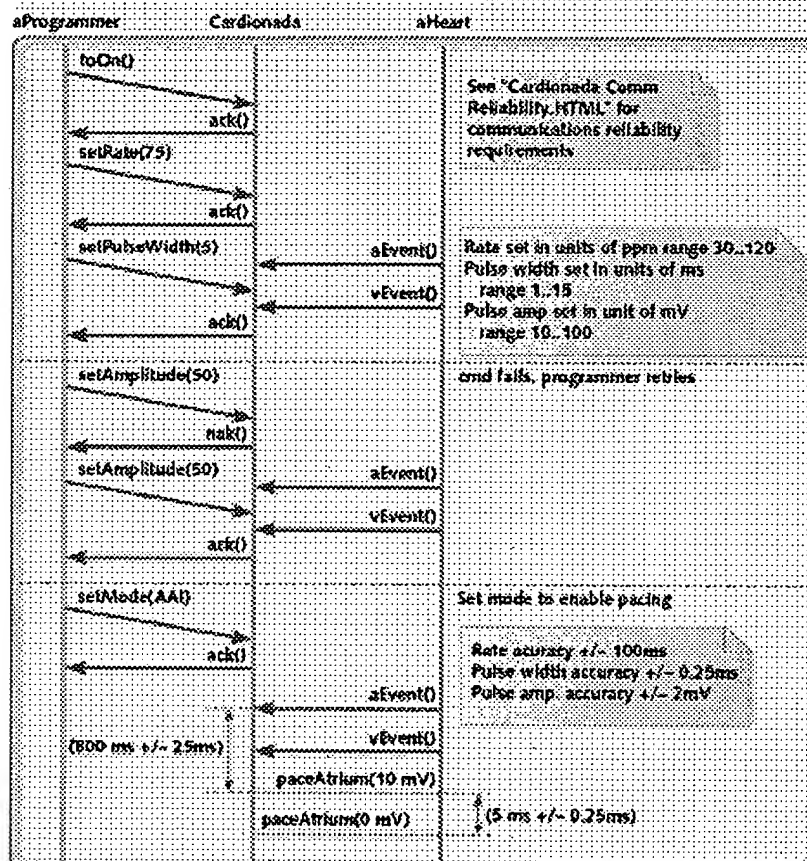
Detailing a use case by specification gets around these disadvantages by providing a single location for the details that applies to each of the infinite scenarios. It can also state prohibitions as requirements. On the downside, precise formal languages (such as statecharts) are used to specify requirements, which require a high digit IQ is required, which may disallow certain managers and managers with less understanding the requirements. My recommendation is to use the simpler approach we will see later.

Scenarios and message sequence charts

A scenario is a specific path through a use case. The most common way to represent a scenario is a message sequence chart, as shown in Figure 1. The

are called instance lines, and at the system specification level, they actors and either the use case or the system fulfilling the role of th prefer to use the use case because it helps me identify the context particular scenario. Note that at this level, we do not include objec system. Looking ahead, later we will add internal objects to our sci how our designs actually meet our requirements, but they should r system-level use case scenarios. The goal at this point is to captur not design.

Figure 1: Scenario example



A typical system might have anywhere from half a dozen to a dozen and each use case might have half a dozen to several dozen scenarios. Since there is an infinite set from which the scenarios can be drawn, how do we decide which ones to explicitly represent? The ROPES process guide adds scenarios to a use case only when they demonstrate or depict more new requirements. You're done when you can't come up with one that adds a new requirement.

Functional requirements are shown on sequence diagrams as ordered sequences. That is, you're showing that a particular sequence of messages must be allowed. If the order within a message set is unimportant, you can add a constraint {unordered} to the set of messages. QoS requirements are shown as constraints that attach to the instance lines, individual messages, or message sets. The most common constraints are timeliness constraints applied to an ordered pair of messages. In Figure 1, a timing constraint is shown at the bottom using a common notation: a vertical line between two horizontal bars marking points in time on the scenario. Other QoS

shown in note boxes on the right of the diagram.

Specifications for requirements capture

The other primary approach to detailing requirements is to do it by Either informal or formal languages can be used, or a combination informal languages, we usually mean written specifications. Some elaborate fields used to specify the use case. For example, Schneic suggest:[3]

- Use case name
- Actors
- Priority (project)
- Status (project)
- Preconditions
- Postconditions
- Extension points
- Included use cases
- Flow of events
- List of related diagrams (sequence, statechart, activity, and :

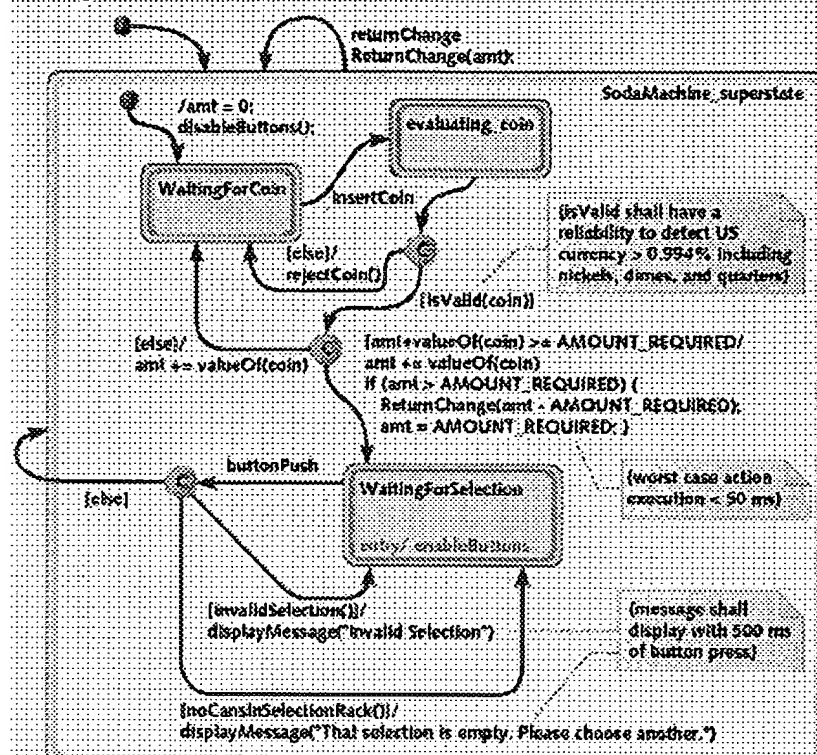
Of these, I feel only the preconditions and postconditions are requi things are shown using other views (such as the diagrams themsel

For formal languages, the UML provides the statechart and its cous chart. Statecharts are most applicable when the use case has state distinguishable conditions of existence as defined by a set of event accepted, behaviors performed, and reachability of subsequent sta use case is in State A, it accepts a certain set of messages and eve certain set of behaviors, and can reach a finite set of other states. distinguishable from other such states in that one or more of these different. When an autopilot is executing "Controlling Flight Path," certain things it can and cannot do when taking off vs. when in cru states.

Activity charts are just a specialized form of a statechart. Activity c when the primary means to transition from one state to the next d completion of the actions executed within a state rather than upon explicit message or event from somewhere else.

Consider a soda pop machine with two actors (the Customer and tl Rep). Let's focus on a Deliver Soda Can use case. It is difficult to ir individually all the possible ways in which users might insert coins buttons to get a can of soda from the machine, even without the a the price. However, it is relatively straightforward to do so using a shown in Figure 2.

Figure 2: Soda machine use case statechart



The statechart in the figure has only four states to manage the transaction of inserting coins and selecting the desired flavor of soda. [4] All directly relevant to the specification of the use case are shown on 1 (although not their implementation). Notice also that no internal objects are identified, but some data are: specifically, `amt` tracks how much the user has entered, and `AMOUNT_REQUIRED` is the cost of a single can of soda. Various operations used within the actions, but it isn't at all implied there are or how they relate to each other.

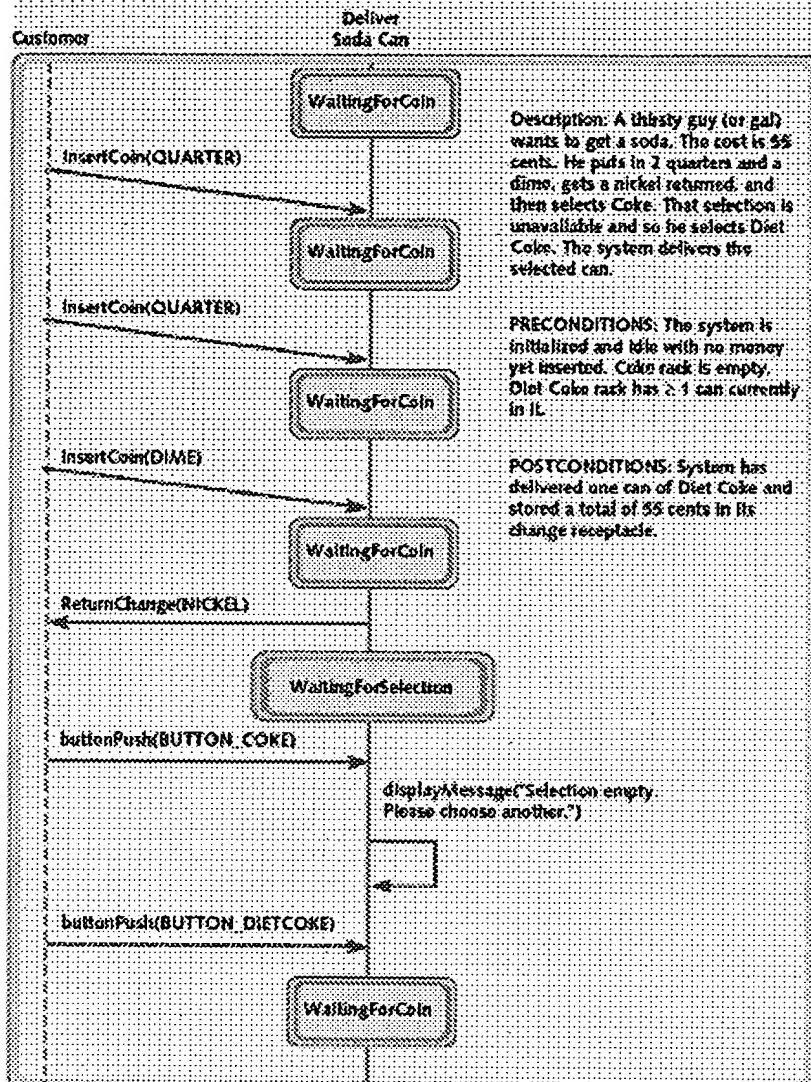
In fact, a set of objects will realize this use case (that's UML-speak "implement"). All that we can be sure of is that, in any correct design specified will collectively be able to provide the services as specified in the statechart in Figure 2.

In the final analysis, either statecharts or activity diagrams can be used for the specification of requirements.

Relating specifications and scenarios

When you use a formal language, such as statecharts, to specify a use case, you are capturing the entire infinite set of scenarios all in one place. A scenario is nothing more than a particular path through the statechart. For example, Figure 3 shows one particular scenario represented by this statechart. In this scenario, the cost of the soda is 55 cents. The customer puts in two quarters and receives a nickel in change. Then he selects Coke, but there is no Coke in the machine; the machine displays a message to that effect. The customer then selects another flavor, Coke, and the system delivers it. Notice that some of the relevant states and transitions in the state machine are shown on the use case instance line—this aids in relating the scenario back to the statechart specification.

Figure 3: Thirsty guy scenario



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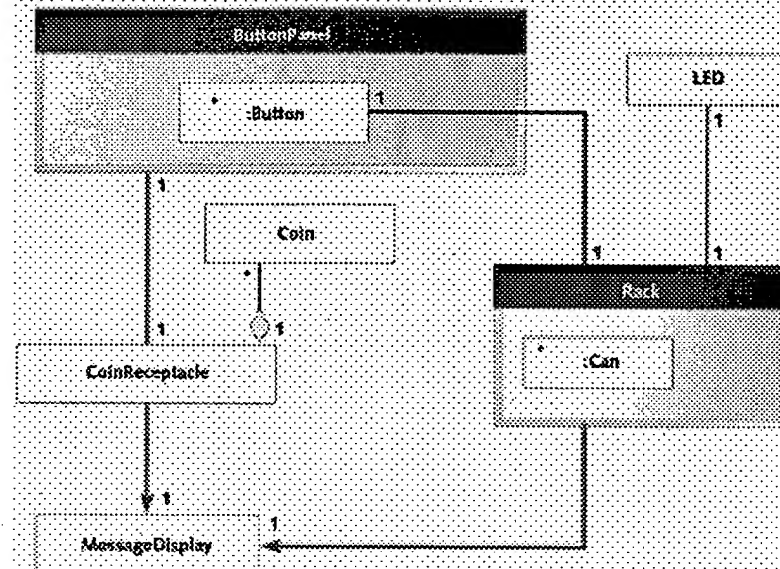
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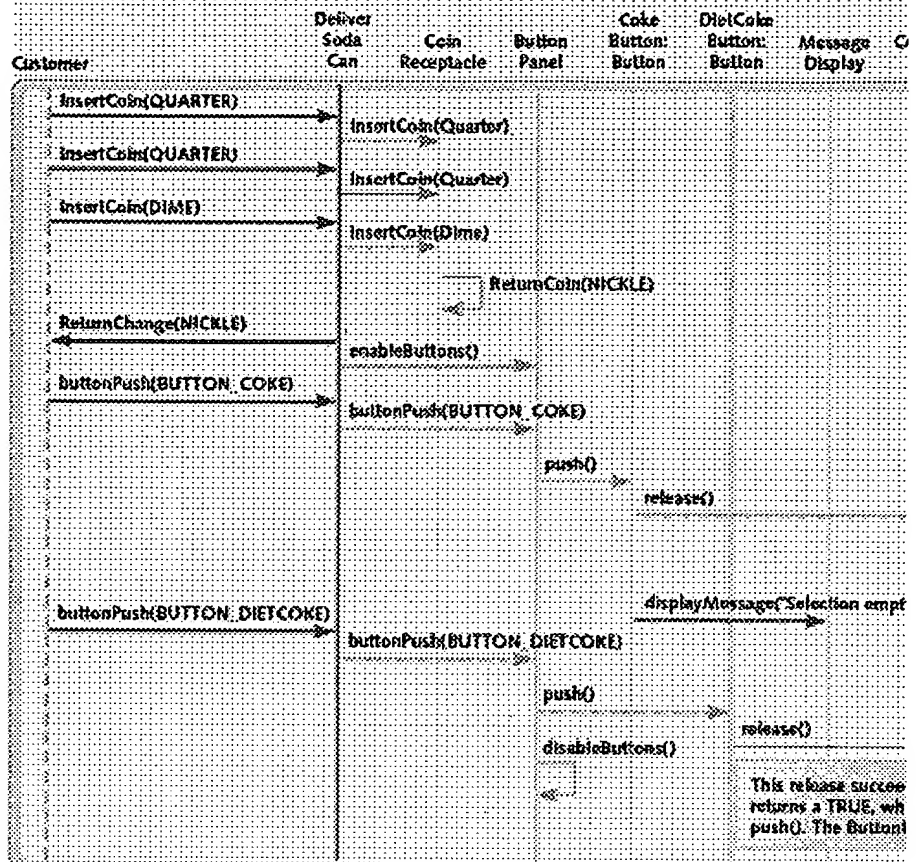


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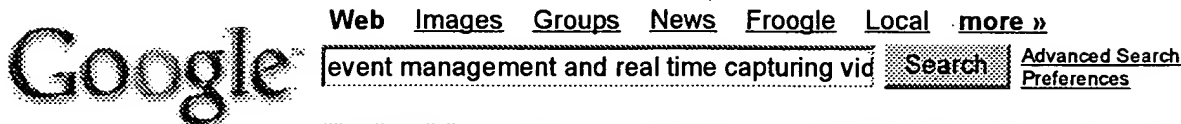
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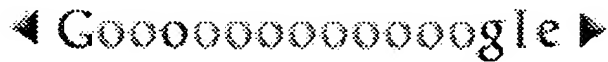
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By Ivan Greenberg

EE Times

Jun 28, 2004

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As carriers and content providers usher in the wireless lifestyle, handsets will undergo unprecedented transformation. Video capture and 3-D gaming at VGA resolution megapixel image capture will all become commonplace in the next two years.

Until recently, mobile processors, LCD displays, image sensors and RF power amplifiers have been the focus of system designers. However, with the advent of new applications like 3-D gaming, designers are becoming increasingly aware of the energy consumed by the handsets memory subsystem.

Tomorrow's handsets will shuffle voluminous amounts of media between processor and memory subsystem, creating a new power hot spot in memory. Unlike yesterday's phone, whose internal data transfer was fundamentally limited to protocol stack processing, next-generation handsets will perform advanced signal processing on two-dimensional data such as H.264, JPEG2000 and 3-D image processing. Additionally, business applications such as Excel, PowerPoint, Word and Outlook will become commonplace on tomorrow's phones.

To meet these requirements, memory suppliers are looking at the expected requirements and use model patterns of tomorrow's media-rich handset in order to formulate

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techniques for reducing energy consumption of this memory subsystem. As handset system designers have a plethora of low-power memory platforms to choose. These platforms are typically offered in multichip packages to conserve handset real estate and combine NOR, SRAM, pseudoSRAM and NAND products.

Most of today's high-end phones use NOR flash and DRAM. Many smartphones feature two NOR devices—one for code storage and code execution, the other for data storage. Additionally, a single mobile DRAM device is used as a scratch pad for temporary storage of images and execution of media processing algorithms.

Given the state of mobile multimedia, NOR flash has served the handset platform well. However, screen resolution, image resolution and video resolution are trending at phenomenal rates, mandating nonvolatile memories with ultrafast storage bandwidth and ultralow power consumption. Given the benefits of NAND technology, this renders the choice of NOR a non sequitur. This is particularly the case for real-time video capture.

Video capture and record

The data flow requirements of video are quite different than those for image capture. Video compression requires constant DRAM read/write access, as the video data captured occurs over several minutes, or in some cases, a single hour. DRAM power must be accounted for because it plays a large role in overall energy consumption.

While the benefits of mobile DRAM over PC DRAM are obvious in this application, the benefits of mobile double data-rate RAM (DDR) over mobile single data-rate RAM (SDR) are elusive. By reducing the clock frequency of the mobile DDR device by a factor of two, the device's active current can be reduced to half that of a mobile SDR device at the same bandwidth. This results in a 35 percent reduction in power consumption compared to a mobile SDR device.

For the calculations below, assume a user takes 10 15-minute video clips during the course of a week. Further, assume that the user captured these clips at VGA resolution using a high-quality MPEG4 encoder with an average bit rate of 1.3 Mbits/sec. Assuming DRAM active current, we can assume single-bank operation.

Unlike image capture, a single 8-Mbyte bank is sufficient for holding frames, kernel and video-processing work space. Video capture and encode at VGA resolution requires on the order of 100 Mbytes/s sustained DRAM bandwidth.

For this article, let's assume a DRAM device that is capable of delivering 400 Mbytes/s when clocked at 100 MHz. Assuming 50 percent efficiency for the application memory controller, systems using this DRAM should be able to sustain 100 Mbytes/s bandwidth with a 50 percent read/write duty cycle. Duty cycle is defined here as the ratio of the average active DRAM time, or read/write accesses, to average DRAM time, or refresh mode:

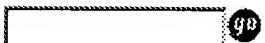
Usable DDR BW = (DDR controller efficiency) x (DDR read/write duty cycle) x (DRAM bandwidth)

= (50 percent) x (50 percent) x (400 Mbit/s) = 100 Mbytes/s



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The DRAM energy consumed is calculated using the effective duty cycle above

$$\text{mA-hrDRAM_active} = [(\text{Isingle_bank_active}) \times (\text{duty cycle}) \times (15\text{-minute vic (number of clips/week)})]/3,600$$

$$\text{mA-hrDRAM_active} = (45 \text{ mA}) \times (50 \text{ percent}) \times (15 \times 60) \times (10)/3,600 = 57$$

While NOR's program rate can handle a video bit rate of 1.3 Mbits/s, it must total of 150 minutes storing the video during our contrived test week. Using below for the case of video capture, we arrive at:

$$\text{mA-hrNOR} = [(\text{number of video-clips/week}) \times (\text{Iprogram}) \times (\text{program time p minute video clip})]/3,600$$

$$\text{mA-hrNOR} = (10) \times (36 \text{ mA}) \times (975 \text{ seconds})/3,600 = 98 \text{ mA-hr}$$

If we assume same program time for NAND (150 minutes), energy consumption will be 22 percent that for NOR since NAND program current is 8 mA, vs. 36 mA. This would yield a NAND energy consumption of approximately 22 mA-hr. However, algorithm developers can reduce this further by buffering up computation in DRAM for deferred ultra-fast storage to NAND. By doing this, program time 150 min of video (1.4 Gbytes) approaches that achieved if one were writing Mbytes/s.

Since the video bit rate is so low, energy consumed buffering up compressed DRAM is a function of self-refresh current (approximately 0.15 mA). Compared to current consumed during NAND program operation (8 mA), it becomes clear that the battle against time, buffering in DRAM has a tremendous advantage.

The equations below are used to determine energy consumption for NAND and DRAM devices with the assumption that system program time approaches that using a 4-Mbyte/s NAND device.

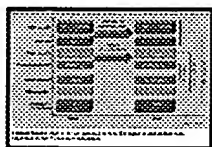
$$\text{mA-hr512 Mbit_NAND} = (10) \times (8 \text{ mA}) \times (37 \text{ seconds})/3,600 = 0.82 \text{ mA-hr}$$

$$\text{mA-hr256 Mbit_DRAM} = (10) \times (0.15 \text{ mA}) \times (900)/3,600 = 0.375 \text{ mA-hr}$$

Taking the results from all of the equations above, the power consumption for NOR/mobile DDR subsystem comes in at 155 mA-hr, while that for a NAND/mobile memory subsystem measures 58 mA-hr.

While the advantages of NAND/DRAM-based systems shown above are impressive, the new wireless frontier will stimulate the sagacious memory suppliers to innovate in new areas. In the quest for lower power, we can expect future NAND/DRAM combinations to feature enhanced interfaces, novel packaging and innovative architectural elements. Regardless of the innovative path, one thing is certain: The mobile memory suppliers will play a pivotal role in reducing power and enhancing the user's experience of handheld devices.

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